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MARCH.

Sturdy March with brows full sternly bent
And armed strongly rode upon a ram;
The same which over Helespontus swam;
Yet in his hand a spade he also hent,
And in a bag all sorts of weeds ysame,
Which on the earth he strewed as he went,
And filled it with the fruitful hope of nourishment. SPENSER.

March derives its name from Mars, the God of war and the favorite deity of the Romans. It was anciently the first month of the year, but it afterwards became the third, as it is at present. According to Verstegan, our Saxon ancestors called "the moneth of March, *Lenct-monat*, that is, *Length-moneth*, because the days did then first begin in length to exceed the night." And from this word *Lenct*, comes the word *Lent*, the name applied to that season of fasting, which was observed by the early Christians, during the 40 days, which immediately preceded the great festival of Easter Sunday, which last was held in commemoration of the resurrection of Christ. The Saxons called it *Hlyd-monath*, from *hlyd*, which means stormy or windy, and this name is equally descriptive of the month in our climate, March being usually the most windy month in the year. March is called one of the spring months, although spring does not properly commence, till the 20th day of the month, when the sun enters the sign Aries of the ecliptic. Aries, or the ram, as a zodiacal sign, is supposed by some to have been derived by the Greeks from the golden fleece, brought from Colchis by Jason about 1263 years before Christ, but it is more

probably an Egyptian hieroglyphic, symbolizing the season in which the sheep bring forth their lambs.

The entrance of the sun into Aries is called the vernal equinox, because, the sun being then in the equator, the days and nights are supposed to be of equal length all over the earth, and this supposition would be correct, were the earth without an atmosphere, and were the sun to remain in the equator long enough to allow the earth to make a diurnal revolution. But the earth has an atmosphere and the sun's centre does not remain in the equator a single moment. On account of the refraction of the earth's atmosphere, the sun, when in the equator, will be above the horizon, as seen from both poles of the earth at the same time; and on the same account, the time from sun rise to sun set will exceed the time from sun set to sun rise about a quarter of an hour at the equator, and much more than that towards the poles. On this account too, every place on the earth has the sun a much greater length of time above its horizon than below it, in the course of the year.

The appearance of spring, being the commencement of the natural year, seems to have been hailed with satisfaction by all nations, and in all ages; and in most countries, it was welcomed with public rejoicing and festivity. In spring the ancient Romans celebrated their *Ludi Florales*, which were games in honor of Flora, and were accompanied by supplications for beneficent influences on the grass, trees, flowers and other products of the earth during the year. The Greeks also invoked *fertility* on the coming spring with numerous ceremonies. In Germany too, the approach of spring was celebrated with great display in their *Der Sommersgewinn*, in which, *winter*, under the shape of a man, covered with straw, was sent off into public exile, while spring, in the form of a youth, clothed in cypress and may, was welcomed with music and rejoicing, and with diverse supplications for a prolific summer.

Let us, too, welcome spring with gratitude and joy, but instead of attempting to propitiate the senseless deities of the heathen by games an ceremonies, let us humble ourselves for our sins, in conformity to the custom of our pious forefathers, and earnestly invoke the blessing of the only God of the seasons, upon the labors of our hands, and upon the productions of the earth, not doubting either his willingness, or his ability, to do for us more than we can ask or think.

For the Green Mountain Repository.

CHOLERA MORBUS.

While our periodicals are teeming with wild and ludicrous articles respecting comets, and writers in different sections of the country, are endeavoring to alarm the ignorant and superstitious by predicting disastrous consequences from the near approach of one of those bodies to our earth, there is a real enemy approaching us with rapid strides, which is more to be dreaded than a thousand comets, and which may well excite in us serious apprehensions. The cholera, which has during the last fifteen years made such frightful havoc on the eastern continent, has advanced towards the west with a sure and resistless progress, and now, having reached the western shores of Europe, we have too much reason to fear, that even the broad Atlantic will not stop it.

Believing that our readers would like to know something of the history of this awful malady, we have collected the following facts from an elaborate article on this subject in the Feburary number of the American Journal of Medical Sciences.

The Cholera is described by Hippocrates and Aritaeus and is not therefore a new disease. Sydenham notices its prevalence in London in 1669 and 1676; and Huxham in 1741. It prevailed in Paris in 1730 and 1780. In India it has been known from the earliest times. It prevailed in upper Hindostan in 1762, and, according to Presle destroyed 30,000 negroes and 800 Europeans. In 1774, it raged at Madras, and from this time to 1781, it was prevalent on the Coromandel coast and assumed and epidemic and malignant character. In 1781, it prevailed in a division of the British Bengal troops, under Colonel Pearse. Men previously in health, dropped down by dozens, and were generally dead, or past recovery in less than one hour. About 500, out of an army of 5000 men, were admitted to the hospital in one day, and in three days more than half the army were infected. In 1782 it raged extensively at Trincomalee, and in 1783, at Hurdwar on the Ganges, where the natives had assembled in vast numbers for ablution in that sacred stream, and in eight days swept off 20,000 persons.

Although this disease has been endemic in different parts of the east from time immemorial, there is no positive evidence of its having prevailed extensively as an epidemic previous to 1817. This year it first attracted public attention at Jessore, a large town sixty

two miles east of Calcutta, in the month of August, and about the same time it made its appearance at Calcutta, Patna, and several other places very remote from each other. By the middle of Sept. it had spread over the whole province of Bengal. In 1818, it extended to Bombay, Madras and the Island of Ceylon, and in 1819, to the Isle of France and Bourbon.

In its progress eastward, it reached Arracan in 1818, Sumatra and Java, in 1819, Canton in 1820, Pekin in 1821, and by the end of the year 1823, it had traversed the Spice Islands and the island of Timor, where it seems to have attained its southeastern limits. From Bombay, it spread westward along the coast and extended back into the country, and in 1821 had reached Muscat and Bagdad. In 1822, it spread to Mosul, Taurus, &c. and in 1823, it reached Antioch and other places on the Mediteranean, where its progress to the west suddenly stopped. It spread northward through Persia in 1822, and reached Astracan near the mouth of the Volga in Sept. 1823. Here it stopped, and during the six following years, it did not advance towards Europe, nor rage extensively in the east. But in 1829, the Cholera appeared again in East Persia and Independent Tartary, with renewed violence, and before the close of the year it extended into the Russian dominions to the northeast of Astracan. During the winter it subsided, but reappeared in the spring on the western shores of the Caspian sea. It arrived at Teflis on the 27th of July, where, in ten days, there were 579 cases, of which 237 were fatal. In its progress northward, it reached Astracan July 19, and in ten days there were 1229 cases in that city, of which 433 were fatal. From Astracan, it spread to the north and west and about the middle of Sept. entered Moscow, the ancient capital of Russia.

Spreading to the south and west, the Cholera reached Warsaw about the middle of April, 1831, and Riga and Dantzic on the Baltic in May following. It appeared in St. Petersburgh about the middle of June, and at Archangel on the White sea soon after. It reached Berlin the last of August, Hamburg the 11th of Oct. and about the same time made its appearance at Sunderland on the eastern shores of England, whence it has spread to New Castle, and some other towns, but thus far it appears to have been less fatal there, than on the continent. The whole number of cases reported in England up to Jan. 24, was 2350, deaths 790. The latest accounts represent the disease as becoming less malignant in its

character in England, but as having made its appearance in London, and at Edinburgh in Scotland. It had also broken out again on the continent, and was raging with violence at Smyrna and other places in Turkey and Persia.

The rapidity with which it sometimes destroys its victims is one of the most remarkable characters of the Cholera, in some cases extinguishing life with almost the rapidity of lightning. At Bellamy, in India, a tailor, attacked while at work, is said to have instantly expired with his work in his hands, and in the very attitude in which he was sitting. A merchant, while closing a bargain, was seized, vomited twice, and expired. At Mecca, and other places, persons were stricken to the earth, vomited, became cold, and died on the spot. It does not, however, usually terminate fatally in less than from 6 to 20 hours.

It is estimated that more than 50 millions of human beings have fallen victims to this disease in the last 15 years, and this will not appear very incredible, when we reflect upon the great fatality, which has attended it. At Jessore 6000 persons died in a few weeks, at Allahabad 10,000; at Mysore 10,000; at Garreakpore 30,000; Java 100,000; Bankok 40,000; Bassora 18,000, of whom 14,000 died in two weeks out of a population of 60,000; Muscat and environs, 60,000, Mecca, in 1831, 20,000, &c. In China the mortality was so great that government was obliged to bury the dead.

With regard to the contagious nature of this disease, there is a difference in opinion. In the article from which the foregoing facts are collected, it is argued that the Cholera is produced by a general distemperature of the air, like influenzas and many other epidemic diseases; while, on the other hand, the English writers strenuously contend, that it is contagious,—that it is communicated by a *virus*, the production of human effluvia, like the measles, small-pox, &c. Our limits will not, however, permit us to adduce their respective arguments, and be the truth on this point as it may, it is agreed on all hands that exposure to cold or moisture, excessive fatigue, crowded and filthy parts of cities, streets and apartments which are not well ventilated, want of personal cleanliness, violent excitement and irregularities of all kinds, unwholesome diet and intemperance in eating and drinking, are all so many predisposing causes of this disease and should be carefully avoided by all who would escape its deadly attack.

For the Green Mountain Repository.

THE CHILD'S INSTRUCTER, *or Lessons on Common Things; by* S. R. HALL, *Andover: Published by* FLAGG *and* GOULD—1832.

By our own observation and experience in teaching, we have been led to adopt as a fundamental principle of education, that whatever is taught in school should be thoroughly taught—that whatever subject, or branch of a subject, a child is required to learn, it should be thoroughly understood so far as it is pursued; for in our humble opinion the business of early education is not so much the acquisition of a large amount of crude and undigested knowledge, as the formation of correct habits of thought and investigation. We do not regard it as the legitimate object of a common school education to give a child a general knowledge of all the arts and sciences, but to give him a particular and thorough knowledge of the elementary principles upon which the several arts and sciences are founded. And the more simple and individual the form and manner in which these elements are presented, the more easily are they comprehended by the child, and the more distinct and indelible their impression upon the mind. What opinion should we form of that teacher of Geometry, who should require his pupils to recite the propositions and demonstrations of Euclid, before they had learned the definitions upon which those demonstrations are founded? Or what should we think of him, who should teach his pupils the rules for extracting the square and cube root, before they had learned the elementary rules of arithmetic? Both these might, perhaps, be done, and it is not impossible that these propositions and rules might be turned, by such pupils, to some practical purposes. Yet no one will contend that such teachers are acting conformably to the present enlightened views on the subject of education; notwithstanding it is precisely upon this principle that many of our school books are constructed and used. Instead of commencing with those elements of the several sciences, which are easily comprehended by the infant mind, and following these up to general principles, the child has been presented at the outset with general and complex notions, which the utmost stretch of his untutored faculties could neither fathom nor comprehend, and which, although compelled to learn and recite them, were to him as unmeaning as the pages of Cicero, or Demosthenese. The slightest glance at the contents of the several Geographies most

extensively used in our primary schools, will afford sufficient confirmation of these remarks. In these the young pupil is first required to learn the relation of our earth to the other bodies in the system of the universe, and then to bound and describe the most extensive and general divisions upon the earth's surface, and this while he knows nothing of the description of the town, county and state in which he resides, and perhaps has no definite notion of the term boundary, and of many other terms, which he continually repeats.

Although the remarks, which have just been made, are still applicable to many of our elementary books, yet at no previous age of the world has the subject of education engrossed so general attention as at the present time, and perhaps at no former period, has so much labor and talent been employed in the preparation and improvement of school books. Indeed, it may be said without fear of contradiction, that schools were never before in possession of books equally well adapted to the general purposes of instruction; and it is with pleasure that we recognize the name of the author of the work, whose title stands at the head of this article, in the list of those, who have contributed both by their labors as a teacher, and as a writer to this happy result. He has done much to remedy the evil of which we have spoken, in the preparation of his geographical works, by beginning the subject at the right end; and we regret that we cannot speak in the same terms of commendation with regard to the particular work under consideration. Not that we have any objection to the matter of instruction, or that we deem the information it contains of little consequence to the pupils, but because, in our opinion, it embraces too great a variety of objects. Considered as a class book in school, we should regard the Child's Instructer in the same light that we should a cyclopedia, or dictionary of general knowledge, for a text book in College. The latter might give the student a smattering of *all* the different sciences, but would make him a thorough scholar in *none*; and, of the same nature are the effects resulting from the use of such books as the Child's Instructer, as classics in our elementary schools. Touching but lightly upon the several topics, the successive objects produce but a slight impression upon the mind, and by the rapidity with which they are presented, and the want of habits of generalization in the unpracticed pupil, these impressions are soon ob-

literated, or so blended and confused, as to render the knowledge acquired of but little use to the possessor. A cyclopedia, though no teacher in his senses would think of using it as an elementary school book, is invaluable to the student, as a book of reference, and we have no doubt but the Child's Instructer will be a valuable book in the hands of children, not so much as a book for recitation in schools, as for its use in families, where instruction in the sciences is not expected to be pursued in that regular and systematic manner, which is, and should be, observed in every well regulated school. We regard the exclusion of books of general knowledge, from our regular course of elementary instruction, as one of the most obvious and prominent improvements of the present day.

With regard to the evil, which the Child's Instructer is intended to remedy, we can say that we have witnessed it long and with deep regret. We have for years been satisfied that at least one half of the time spent by children in our common schools, has been entirely thrown away, in consequence of their not having suitable employments to occupy their time. Nor is the loss of time a moiety of the evil. Idleness is the mother of crime as well as of want; and the experience of every teacher will testify, that the whole secret of governing a large school lies in the means and ability of the master to provide for his pupils regular employment, which shall occupy their whole time, and afford sufficient variety to relieve them of the tedium of too long confinement to the same pursuits; and where this cannot be done by other means, we think it better that the Child's Instructer should be introduced as a school book, than that the pupils should spend their time in idleness and play. But we should certainly prefer putting into their hands a regular system of mental Arithmetic, a simple Geography of their own state, or a regular system embracing the elements of almost any *one* subject, in preference to a book, which embraces such a multiplicity of objects as are presented in the Child's Instructer.

From Silliman's Journal.

Remarks upon the present mode of conducting Land Surveys in the United States; *by* EDWIN F. JOHNSON.

The continent of America, previously to its discovery and settlement by the Europeans, was in the possession of a people, uncivilized in their character, wandering in their habits, and depending for a subsistence upon such precarious means as the lakes and

streams or forest, from day to day afforded. Fixed habitations and separate individual proprietorships in land were consequently unknown, and territorial divisions were not acknowledged, except in respect to the hunting grounds of the several tribes, which were defined by such boundaries as nature had formed in the various ranges of hills, or courses of the different streams, which in every direction spread over and diversified the general face of the country.

When therefore the emigrants from the east seated themselves on these shores, a new order of things was established. Bringing with them as they did, the habits, customs, &c. of the civilized nations of Europe, they found it necessary to institute a system of separate and distinct individual titles in land. The first settlements were made principally upon the rich bottoms contiguous to the mouths of the larger rivers, and the portions taken by the settlers were generally selected according to the kind and quality of the soil and timber, without regard to any regular or systematic mode of allotment.

In many instances by mutual understanding, tracts of a given width, measured along the margin of the bay or river, were assigned to each occupant, extending back to an indefinite distance into the interior; the positions of the dividing lines being a matter of compromise or arbitration, in which the parties were aided by such imperfect instruments as were used in guiding their vessels across the Atlantic. In process of time the settlements thus formed, were viewed by the mother country as likely to constitute important appendages to her dominions. This consideration, in connection perhaps, in some instances, with the solicitations of the settlers themselves, induced her to extend over them her government and laws.

From this period the right of soil may be considered as exercised in full force by the crown, except in particular cases where respect was paid to the long enjoyed possessions of the settlers. The lands were no longer taken up at the option of individuals, in such places and to such an extent as they thought proper, but were the subject of bargain and sale either with the crown, or with those who had been regularly invested with a title.

Speculations in this, as in most of the business concerns of life, were entered into for the purpose of gain. Companies of indivi-

duals were formed to whom, for a trifling consideration, grants or letters patent of large tracts in particular situations were issued, and these were divided into smaller parcels, and retailed out at an advance upon the original purchase.

In this state of things is discovered the commencement of the present system of land surveying as practiced in the United States. The extreme cheapness of lands, called for the most economical and expeditious mode of executing the surveys; and their abundance rendered the proprietors less scrupulous as to the accuracy with which the measurements were effected. They consequently availed themselves of the most convenient means, viz. of the compass or circumferentor for the measurement of angles, and the chain of Gunter for the measurement of lines. The services of men properly skilled in the art of surveying were seldom to be obtained, and reliance was necessarily placed upon many whose knowledge of the subject was extremely imperfect. The instruments likewise with which they were provided were often of an inferior kind, and as the surveys were not generally made in conformity with any established and properly arranged system, but according to the option or to suit the wishes or interests of the individuals concerned, great irregularity and much confusion and discrepancy were the consequence.

In process of time however, improvements were gradually introduced into this department. These may be briefly stated to consist in the increased facilities afforded for the acquisition of knowledge upon the subject, by the publication of treatises of a more practical and scientific character, and the introduction and use of improved instruments, with a more enlarged and liberal view of the importance of adhering to a more regular and systematic mode of proceeding than had previously been adopted.

The influence of the general spread of intelligence as evidenced in the progress towards a higher degree of perfection in our civil Institutions, and in the various branches of the sciences and the arts, has not, it is to be regretted, been as conspicuous in this department as in most others. It is not easy to account for this, for the subject is certainly one of great intrinsic importance, and the demand for skill and experience in relation to it, has undoubtedly been greater in this country than in almost any other. The improvements which have resulted have been confined to, or their

benefits principally experienced by the new States. In the order and regularity of their surveys—the judicious arrangement and location of the building plots and streets in their villages—the preservation for future reference of plans correctly executed, on which are distinctly traced on a scale sufficiently large, the form and dimensions of each separate right, those states are far before the older and more settled portions of the country.

The introduction of the system first instituted in the western part of New York and since, with some modifications, adopted and pursued by the general government in the surveys of the public lands, is probably one of the most striking examples of the improvements to which we allude. By this system townships and subdivisions of townships or sections and quarter sections, are disposed in a square form, the lines of each corresponding in direction with the cardinal points of the horizon;—an arrangement from which no deviation is permitted except when necessarily interrupted by a state or Indian boundary, or by navigable waters.

The preceding may be considered as exhibiting the progress and amount of improvement in the department of surveying in this country for the long period of about two centuries which has elapsed since its first settlement. There is, probably, no art or profession in which native talent and skill has displayed itself to less advantage. The circumstance of our continuing in the same beaten track with our predecessors, may, perhaps, be attributed to a want of consciousness on the part of the public, of the importance of the subject, or to the fact that the public attention has been engrossed by other matters of seemingly greater moment, or more probably to both combined.

That there is ample room for improvement there can be no doubt, and the time I trust is not far distant when the requisite measures will be taken for effecting a thorough and judicious reorganization of the mode of conducting the land surveys in every state in the Union. Perhaps I cannot better illustrate the importance of such a change than by exposing some of the more exceptional parts of the present system.

TO BE CONTINUED.

ORIGIN OF INDIAN CORN.

This grain, so important to the agricultural interests of the United States, appears to be of uncertain origin. Fuchs very early maintained that it came from the east, and Mathioli affirmed that it was from America. Regmir and Gregory have presented fresh arguments in favor of its eastern origin. Among them is the name by which it has been long in Europe, *blé de Turquie*, and varieties, it is said, have been brought from the Isle of France, or from China. Moreau de Jonnés, on the contrary, has recently maintained in a memior read before the Academy of Science, that its origin was in America. The name *blé de Turquie* no more proves it to be of Turkish origin than the name of *Italian poplar* proves that that tree grew wild in Italy. It can only signify that it spread from Turkey into the neighboring countries. Its general cultivation in southern Europe, and the production of some new varieties, proves nothing with regard to the country of the species.

In favor of its American origin, is the fact that it was found in a state of cultivation in every place where the first navigators landed; in Mexico, according to Hernandiz, and in Brazil according to Zeri, and that in the various countries, it had proper names. Such as *Maize, Flaolli, &c.* while in the old world its names were either all of American origin, or names of the neighboring region whence it was immediately derived, and that immediately after the discovery of America it spread rapidly in the old world and soon became common, a fact not reconcilable with the idea of its former existence there.

To these proofs Aug. de Saint Hilaire has added another. He has received from M. de Larranhaga of Montevideo, a new variety of Maize distinguished by the name of Tunicata, because instead of having the grains naked they are entirely covered by the glumes. This variety is from Paraguay where it is cultivated by the Guaycugas Indians, a people in the lowest scale of civilization, and where, according to the direct testimony of one of them, it grows in the humid forests as a native production.—*Bib. Univ.*

They who are teaching the people to read, are doing all that in them lies to increase the power, and to extend the influence of those who can write; for the child will read to please his master, but the man, to please himself.

For the Green Mountain Repository.

BIOGRAPHY OF

GOV. THOMAS CHITTENDEN.

It has so happened, that almost every age of the world has produced individuals, who seem to have been moulded, by nature particularly for the exigencies of the times in which they lived. There have always been some master spirits, who were peculiarly fitted to control the agitated waters of public opinion, and either to soothe them into a calm, or else to mount upon the wind and direct the waves; and the results attained under their guidance have usually been happy to community, or otherwise, according as the ruling motives of the leader have been patriotic or selfish. These results, it is true, are materially affected by the amount of virtue and intelligence among the people; but virtue and intelligence do not, alone, fit an individual for becoming a popular and successful leader in troublesome times. There is necessary, in addition to these, a certain indescribable tact and native energy, which few individuals have possessed, and which, perhaps, no one in our State, has manifested in a more eminent degree, than the distinguished person, whose name stands at the head of this article.

Gov. Thomas Chittenden was born at Guilford, in Connecticut, on the 6th day of January, in the year 1729. At the age of about 20 years, he was married to Miss Elizabeth Meigs, and soon after removed to Salisbury, where, by his industry, and economy, he acquired a handsome landed property. While he resided at Salisbury he represented that town seven years in the Connecticut assembly, became a civil magistrate, and a colonel of the militia of that state. Early in the spring of 1774, he removed with his family to the New Hampshire Grants, as Vermont was then called, having purchased a tract of land on the Winooskee, or Onion river, in the township of Williston. Here he arrived in the month of April or May, not knowing the spot on which he was to locate himself, and without having any habitation provided for the shelter of his family. At this time there were scarcely any inhabitants in Vermont to the northward of Rutland, and none within the limits of the County of Chittenden, excepting those who had come on the present year. These were locating themselves at Burlington, Colchester and some other places.

Seated upon the beautiful and fertile banks of the Winooskee,

labor, well directed in the cultivation of his new farm, had procured to Mr. Chittenden the necessary provision for the comfortable sustenance of his family and had opened to him the prospect of many of the conveniencies of life; and nothing could be more flattering than the prospect of rural wealth, abundance and independence, as the natural and certain consequence of the labor of his hands and the fertility of the soil. It was in the midst of these improvements, and pleasing anticipations, that the war of the Revolution commenced, and the frontier settlements became exposed to the depradations of the enemy—to the merciless inroads of their savage allies. In this state of things, in 1775, Mr. Chittenden was employed, with four others, as a committee to repair to Philadelphia, and procure intelligence with regard to the measures which Congress was pursuing and to receive advice respecting the political measures proper to be adopted by the people of the New Hampshire Grants.

The retreat of the American army from Canada, in the spring of 1776, and the advance of the British upon Lake Champlain, rendering it unsafe for the few settlers, scattered along the western border of Vermont, to remain upon their lands, this section of the country was wholly abandoned by the inhabitants, who retired into the southern part of the district, or into Massachusetts and Connecticut. Mr. Chittenden removed his family to Arlington, in June of this year, was appointed President of the Council of Safety and soon became a leading man in the consultations of the inhabitants. Entering with deep interest into the controversy with New York respecting the titles of the lands on the New Hampshire Grants, and being more acquainted with public business than any of the settlers, in consequence of the offices, which he had held in his native state, he was universally regarded as the man most suitable to be placed at the head of their operations. Mr. Chittenden perceived that the general struggle for independence, in which the colonies were now engaged, presented a favorable opportunity for terminating the controversy with New York, by erecting the disputed territory into a new state and establishing a separate government; and having adopted this decisive plan of sound policy, he steadily pursued it, till he saw the independence of Vermont acknowledged by the neighboring states and by the general government. He was a member of the first convention of delegates

from the several townships, which met at Dorset, Sept. 25, 1776, for the purpose of taking into consideration the expediency of declaring Vermont an independent state, and at the subsequent meeting of the convention at Westminster, Jan. 15, 1777, he was one of the committee, who draughted the declaration of independence, which was there adopted, and also a member of another committee, who, at that time, petitioned Congress, praying that body to acknowledge Vermont, a free and independent state. He assisted in forming the first Constitution of Vermont, which was adopted by Convention July 2, 1777, and in 1778 he was elected the first governor of Vermont, which office he held with the exception of one year till his death. He was one of the eight persons* who secretly managed the negotiations with the British in Canada in 1780, and the three following years, with such consummate adroitness and skill as to deceive alike the British and the people of the United States, and effectually to secure Vermont from the hostilities of the enemy, whose forces were all this time in possession of Lake Champlain, and Vermont without any other means of defence. After the close of the war, Gov. Chittenden again removed his family to Williston, where he spent the remainder of his active and useful life. Advanced in years and declining in health, in the summer of 1797 he resigned the office of Governor, which he had held for 18 years, and died the same season, August the 25th in the 69th year of his age, beloved by his family and friends and sincerely esteemed and lamented by the people of Vermont.

As already remarked, Gov. Chittenden possessed in an eminent degree, precisely those qualifications, which fitted him for the sphere in which he was called upon to act. He had not, indeed, enjoyed many of the advantages of education, but his want of education was amply compensated by the possession of a strong and active mind, which at the time he emigrated to Vermont, was matured by age, practiced to business, and enriched by a careful observance of men and things. His knowledge was practical rather than theoretic. He was regular in his habits—plain and simple in his manners—averse to ostentation of equipage, or dress, and he cared little for the luxuries, the blandishments, or the etiquette of

*These eight persons were Thomas Chittenden, Moses Robinson, Samuel Safford, Ethan Allen, Ira Allen, Timothy Brownson, John Fasset and Joseph Fay.

refined society. In short, though he was destitute of many of the qualifications now deemed essential in a statesman, he possessed all that were necessary, and none that were superfluous, in the times in which he lived, and was probably far better fitted to be the leader and governor of the independent, dauntless and hardy, but uncultivated settlers of Vermont, than would have been a man of more theoretic knowledge, or polite accomplishments.

NATHAN HALE.

It seems to be the order of events, that some benefactors to their race should be undistinguished, while many inferior in real intrinsic merit, are wafted on by the current of popularity, and greeted with the huzzas, and shouts of an enthusiastic people. Of the former class, was the subject of the following sketch. Nathan Hale was born in Coventry, Connecticut. He was possessed of a benevolent temperament, of ardent patriotism, and a soul warmed with the glowing desire to aid his country in her struggle for freedom. Admitted a member of Yale College in 1769, he graduated n 1773, with the reputation of distinguished scholarship. During his classical course, the war of the Revolution had been silently approaching. The darkness had been long gathering, and when first the rumbling approach of the tempest became audible, the heart of Nathan Hale beat high for the success of the noble strife of his countrymen. He early stood forth, the champion of his country's freedom, and the enthusiastic avenger of her grievous oppression. Under the guidance of our beloved Washington, he with other brave hearts, engaged with ardent zeal in the struggle for the preservation of our liberal institutions.

It fell to his lot, to be engaged in the memorable retreat of our forces from Long Island, in 1776. Subsequent to this enterprize, Washington remained, during a considerable time, wholly unacquainted with the movements of the British army, and it became necessary that some information of their intentions should be obtained. For the accomplishment of this object, immediate application was made to Colonel Knowlton of the Connecticut line, for an enterprizing and discreet officer to hazard the perilous attempt. Col. K. communicated this request to Capt. Hale, knowing him to be possessed of an energetic spirit, suitable for the enterprize. The idea of becoming a spy, at first shocked

the sensibilities of Hale, but on mature reflection, his momentary reluctance was conquered. The desired information was obtained, and the gallant youth was on his return, to render to his sainted father in arms, the success of his undertaking, when he was arrested; the flower of anticipated glory was cut down, and the fell blow blasted the hopes of so praise-worthy an action. He was immediately taken before Sir Wm. Howe, who ordered the immediate and most rigorous sentence of the laws of war, to be executed upon the youthful patriot. He was thrown into prison, to await on the following morning his ignominious doom. The attendance of a clergyman was forbidden, and the consolation of a Bible was denied him with savage inhumanity. Such treatment perhaps needs no comment. The heart of the martyr was not for a moment daunted—the only regret he was heard to express, was, that he had but one life to lose in the sacred cause of freedom. Such spirits ought not to sleep, unremembered—they are choice gems in the wealth of any country.

His career though brilliant was thus early closed, and none save the Genius of American Freedom, sat by his newly closed grave, to shed the tear of silent grief, over his untimely fate. No martial pomp attended his interment. No funeral peal tolled the knell of his solemn obsequies. A day of retribution followed this inhuman tragedy of the British. Major Andre was captured, and fell a victim to the inexorable arm of justice. The circumstances which led to the fate of these youthful patriots were very similar. But the closing scene how widely different! The valiant youth of Albion has been lauded to the skies for his bravery, yet his countrymen have forgotten the youthful martyr of America. The bones of the former have been transported across the Atlantic, and entombed in princely state, but, where sleep the remains of the latter? The monumental stone in Westminster Abby reveals the noble deeds of daring of the one, while not even an elevated turf marks the resting place of the other. We plead not for unavailing pageantry. We know that splendid structures avail not the silent dead. But, we *do* plead for national gratitude. Capt. Hale sleeps with many of the silent dead, who "fought our battles and won our victories." His unconscious slumbers are unbroken by any national tribute to his virtuous youth, and gallant achievements, yet there are grateful hearts which will ever honor his valor, which calls forth the secret sympathy and

grief, that worth so noble, and a fate so heart-rending should elicit a sympathy so slight, and a reward so inglorious.—*Bouquet.*

MECHANICS' INSTITUTION.

In one of the cities of the British empire, a Mechanics' institution was established, a few years ago, when Brougham and Birkbeck, and many enlightened and liberal men, were suggesting and stimulating the popular instruction of the working classes. To this institution a talented and efficient lecturer was procured, whose engaging and attractive manner soon gained him a high reputation. It was a delightful scene to walk in, on a winter's evening, and see such a crowd of young men, and among them many of the middle aged and old, who, instead of spending their leisure time in the roar and dissipation of a tap-room, were listening with breathless attention to the reasonings of the lecturer, and viewing his experiments with lynx-eyed curiosity. Many of them belonged to trades which could easily furnish them with an excuse for non-attendance, on the score of fatigue and want of cleanliness. But these very classes seemed to be among the most indefatigable of the audience. No storm could frighten, no distance detain—there they were, with clean washed faces, and aprons neatly tucked up, and almost every one with a book for the purpose of exchanging at the library. The benevolent mind, in viewing such a scene would naturally spring forward to the hour, when the wilds of America, the deserts of Africa, and the lone isles of the Pacific, would boast their Broughams and their Mechanic institutes—and every shade of humanity, from the blooming white and red, to the deep glossy black, know no distinction but *mind*—no superiority but *intellect.*

DUBLIN PAPER.

Old They.—There is a most consummate scoundrel in this region called *They.* He is at the bottom of all mischief, and delights in abusing the good people which he happens to fall in with. No scandal is uttered, but *They* is given as the author. *They* said so and so. Two young people cannot look at each other in a quiet friendly manner, but *They* takes up the subject, and forthwith the two are pronounced to be *engaged*, and if a marriage does not ensue, why *They* say he or she is a faithless wretch, and has broken *terrible*

promises. A merchant can't look sober a few minutes but *They* say he is going to fail, and all his creditors are set on, with a hue and cry and forty *bum bailiffs* to boot, because *They* say he is a real villian and ought to be hung without benefit of clergy; this Old They say.—*Amer. Standard.*

For the Green Mountain Repository.

MEASUREMENTS ON LAKE CHAMPLAIN.

The following are the results of measurements, recently made upon Lake Champlain, on the ice, under the direction of John Johnson, Esqr.

From the southwestern corner of Mayo and Follett's wharf

	ch. li.		*m. rods.*
To Sharp-Shin Point,	134.35	equal to	1—217
To Appletree Point,	256.93	"	3—68
To Port Kent,	770.00	"	9—200
To Douglass' Bay,	768.20	"	9—193
To the Light House,	251.88	"	3—48
To the Landing on Juniper Island,	247.00	"	3—28
To Rock Dunder,	216.52	"	2—226
To Pottier's Point,	205.52	"	2—182

From the Light House

To Pottier's Point,	109.71	"	1—119
To Rock Dunder,	66.70	"	0—267
To Sharp-Shin Point,	237.43	"	2—310
To Appletree Point,	267.27	"	3—109

The distance from Burlington to Douglas' Bay was measured upon the ice in 1821, by several gentlemen from Burlington, at which time the following soundings were taken and the depth of the lake found to be,—

	fathoms.		*feet.*
At half a mile out from Burlington,	9	*equal to*	54
Between Sharp-Shin and Red Rock,	13	"	78
Between Sharp-Shin and Pottier's Point,	11	"	66
Between Appletree P't. & Juniper Island 3 m. out,	11	"	66
Between Colchester Point and Sloop Island,	47	"	282
Between Providence Island and East Brother,	31	"	186
Between Valcour Island and West Brother,	16	"	96
——— South of Schuyler's Island,	25	"	150

METEOROLOGICAL

BURLINGTON, Vt., Lat. 44° 27′. Long. 73° 14′. Altitude above Lake

1832.		Thermometer.			Barometer.			RAIN	Winds.		
MAR.		S. R.	1 P.M.	9 EV.	S. R.	1 P.M.	9 EV.	Inch's	Morning.	Noon.	Evening.
1	5	4	21	7	30.20	30.10	30.15		N.	N.	N.
2	6	—1	32	32	30.15	29.85	29.60		N.	S.	S.′
3	7	36	44	31	29.35	29.40	29.65		S.	N. W.	N.
4	G	16	40	35	29.80	29.55	29.50		N.	N.	N.
5	2	33	43	39	29.40	29.30	29.20		S. E.	S.	S.
6	3	35	43	28	29.15	29.10	29.20	.54	S.	N.	N.
7	4	20	26	20	29.35	29.45	29.70		N. W.	N.	N.
8	5	17	33	35	29.80	29.55	29.55		S.	S.	S.
9	6	41	47	46	29.55	29.40	29.35		S.	S.	S.
10	7	37	40	27	29.65	29.70	29.85		N.	N.	N.
11	G	36	52	40	29.80	29.60	29.45		S.	S. E.	S.
12	2	47	56	47	29.20	29.00	28.85	.11	S.	S.	S.
13	3	40	36	17	28.90	28.95	29.05	.04	S. W.	N.	N.
14	4	7	16	11	29.50	29.50	29.70		N.	N.	N.
15	5	8	33	27	29.90	29.85	29.85		S.	S.	S.
16	6	29	38	34	29.80	29.75	29.65		S.′	S.	S.′
17	7	30	22	10	29.50	29.35	29.35		N.	N.	N.
18	G	4	18	12	29.30	29.30	29.60	.82	N.	N.	N.
19	2	3	25	12	29.85	29.75	29.85		W.	W.	S.
20	3	19	39	34	29.60	29.35	29.30		S.	S.	S.
21	4	36	50	27	28.95	28.95	29.10		S.	S.	N.
22	5	16	21	18	29.35	29.40	29.50	.26	N. W.	N. W.	N. W.
23	6	7	37	36	29.65	29.55	29.40		N.	S.	S.′
24	7	40	47	51	29.35	29.15	29.35		S.	S.	S.
25	G	51	62	55	29.30	29.10	29.00		S.	S.	S.
26	2	44	32	22	29.20	29.30	29.75	.54	S.	N.	N.
27	3	16	36	30	29.95	29.85	29.75		N.	N.	N.
28	4	26	36	25	29.75	29.80	29.80		N.	N.	N.
29	5	25	38	26	29.85	29.75	29.90		W.	N.	N.
30	6	25	42	39	29.95	29.75	29.60		S.	S.	S.′
31	7	39	49	51	29.45	29.15	29.00		S.″	S.″	S.″
MEAN		25.4	37.2	29.8	29.53	29.47	29.50	2.31	Gen'l mean Ther. 30.8		

JOURNAL.

Champlain 250 feet. Distance from the Lake, one mile East.

D.	Weather. Morn.	Noon.	Even'g.	Remarks.
1	*Clear*	*Clear*	*Clear*	Calm and not a cloud during the day.
2	*Clear*	*Clear*	*Clear*	
3	*Cloudy*	*Cloudy*	*Clear*	
4	*Clear*	*Clear*	*Cloudy*	
5	*Snow*	*Snow*	*Cloudy*	Streets quite wet.
6	*Snow*	*Snow*	*Cloudy*	Aurora Borealis.
7	*Clear*	*Cloudy*	*Clear*	
8	*Fair*	*Cloudy*	*Fair*	
9	*Fair*	*Cloudy*	*Cloudy*	
10	*Fair*	*Fair*	*Clear*	
11	*Fair*	*Cloudy*	*Rain*	
12	*Cloudy*	*Fair*	*Rain*	Foggy. Lightning in the evening.
13	*Cloudy*	*Cloudy*	*Fair*	Ground considerably bare.
14	*Fair*	*Clear*	*Clear*	Sleighing at an end.
15	*Clear*	*Clear*	*Clear*	
16	*Clear*	*Clear*	*Clear*	
17	*Snow*	*Snow*	*Cloudy*	
18	*Snow*	*Snow*	*Cloudy*	Nearly one foot of snow.
19	*Clear*	*Clear*	*Clear*	
20	*Clear*	*Fair*	*Cloudy*	*Robins & Sparrows appeared in* 1829.
21	*Cloudy*	*Fair*	*Clear*	One inch of snow.
22	*Fair*	*Fair*	*Fair*	
23	*Clear*	*Fair*	*Cloudy*	
24	*Clear*	*Clear*	*Clear*	Sleighing gone again.
25	*Fair*	*Fair*	*Cloudy*	Smoky. Robins appeared.
26	*Cloudy*	*Snow*	*Clear*	About 7 inches of snow.
27	*Clear*	*Clear*	*Clear*	
28	*Clear*	*Clear*	*Clear*	Sparrows appeared.
29	*Cloudy*	*Clear*	*Clear*	Ground bare again.
30	*Clear*	*Clear*	*Clear*	
31	*Clear*	*Cloudy*	*Cloudy*	

Barometer, 29.50 inches.

Additional Remarks.—It will be seen by the preceding table that the mean temperature of March this year was 30.8 deg. The mean of March 1826 was 33.3 deg. of 1828, 32.4 deg. of 1829—28.7 deg. and of March from 1803—8=5 years, 28.5 deg. Range of the Thermometer for March 1832, from 62. deg. above to 1 deg. below zero, equal to 63. deg. Range of the Barometer from 28. 85 inches to 30.20, equal to 1.35 inches. *** When the accent is used after the letter shewing the course of the wind thus S′, it denotes that the wind is high, and if two accents are used thus S″, it denotes very high wind.

As the sleighing is probably over for this season it may not be improper to remark that the last fall was remarkably mild—that it froze only twice so as to stiffen the surface of the ground, or produce ice on the surface of standing water, before the 26th day of November. On that day a snow storm commenced, the weather became colder, and on the 27th the snow had fallen sufficiently deep to make good sleighing, which continued uninterrupted till the 18th of January. From the 18th to the 25th the sleighing was poor, the ground being mostly bare. On the 25th of January there was a fall of snow, which made the sleighing good again, and it continued good without interruption through the whole month of February and till the 14th day of March, when it failed and since that time the ground has been alternately covered with snow and bare again, as will be seen by a reference to the journal. The whole amount of good sleighing during the winter has been no less than 111 days equal to 16 weeks, or about four times the usual quantity. The quantity of snow has not been unusually great. Measured immediately after it fell, the whole quantity was not far from seven feet. The cold during the month of December was very severe, the thermometer ranging between zero and 14 deg. below zero about one fourth of the mornings. The temperature since that time may be seen by a reference to the Journal.

Mathematical Question.—If a bullet, discharged at a mark 20 rods distant and on a horizontal plane, fall one inch below it, and if we suppose the curve, which the bullet describes to be an arc of a circle, what will be the diameter of that circle? Required the most simple method of solution.

SUMMARY.

Population of England.—The population returns have just been printed by order of Parliament. From the summary of this document we find that the population of England was in 1801, 8,331,444, in 1811, 9,538,828 being an increase of 14½ per cent; in 1821 ,11,262,437, being an increase 17½ per cent; in 1831, 13,089,338, and an increase of 16 per cent. The increase within the last thirty years has been 4,757,905.

The population in London (that is, the metropolis) was in 1801, 864,845; in 1811, 1,009,546; in 1821, 1,225,695; and in 1831, 1,474,093; males, 684,441; females, 789,652.

Chance.—"I am old enough," says Smollet, in a letter to his friend Garrick, "to have seen and observed that we are all playthings for fortune, and that it depends upon something as insignificant and precarious as the tossing up of a half penny, whether a man rises to affluence and honors, or continues to his dying day struggling with the difficulties and disgraces of life."

Untaught Surgery.—Tanner describes a poor fellow, one of a wandering tribe of Indians in the interior of North America, who being wounded in the arm by the accidental discharge of a gun and seeing no chance of saving his life but by amputation, taking two knives, the edge of one of which he had hacked into a sort of saw, he, with his right hand, cut off his left arm, throwing it from him as far as he could!—*Spirit of the Times.*

Talents in a Napkin.—A gentleman once introduced his son to Rowland Hill, by letter, as a youth of great promise, and as likely to do honor to the university of which he was a member; "but he is shy," added the father, "and idle, and I fear buries his talents in a napkin." A short time afterwards the parent, anxious for the reverend gentleman's opinion, inquired what was thought of his son? "I have shaken the napkin," said Rowland, Hill, "at all corners, and there is nothing in it."—*Diamond Mag.*

Errata.—In the first number of the Repository page 8th, line 19th from the bottom for *Sullivan* read *Lincoln.* In No. 2 page 26th, line 6th from the bottom for *water* read *matter.*—Also on page 45th, in the 4th line under "Remarks" for 20 *deg.* read 26 *deg's,* in a part of the copies.

POETICAL DEPARTMENT.

For the Green Mountain Repository.

MY NATIVE MOUNTAINS.

My native mountains! in thy deep,
Thy wid'ning shades, much doth my heart
Delight to roam. Thy health fraught breeze,
Thy varied sunbeam, opening flower,
Progressive plant and trickling rill,
Have charms to glad my soul.
How sweet, at early dawn, along
Thy leafy glens to roam, when waked
From fairy dreams, th' aerial tribes
Pour forth enchanting lays. I love
The river's winding course to trace
And on its flowery bank to sit me down,
With alders rustling o'er my head
And there to watch the passing stream
Till, lost in reverie profound,
I seem the mystic "course of time"
To scan. Or ever and anon,
Upon the tide, a pebble cast,
And sinking, minds me of
Oblivion's power. Let cities boast
Their mimic arts—their massy domes—
Their glittering spires and smoky atmospheres,
And citizens, with restless eye
And mind with care distraught,
While from those giddy scenes remote
We tax the powers of intellect
Or beck the Muse, as skipping, light
From dell to dell, her golden cup
In chrystal stream she dips, and meeds
To untaught wight a draught as rich
As ever flow'd from fam'd Castalia's fount.
Parnassus is not in our range,
'Tis true; nor do our Muses covet
Dizzy heights. No cloud cap'd Andes,
No Himaleh, nor Ararat we boast,
But a fraternity of mounts,
Renowned afar, as virtue's shield,
As vice's barrier, as science's friend,
As health's preservative and freedom's soil.
Sweet wakes the morn!
I see the auburn locks—now chang'd
They glow with burnish'd gold—and now
Appears above yon orient height,
Her dazling eye; creation leaps
With joy—the milk-maid seeks the fold,
While to the field the ploughman hies—
The student to his walk, and pleas'd
The invalid peeps forth and smiles.
But lo!—
The breakfast horn, with its shrill note,
Peals through the vales, and from the hills
Echoes its sweet response.
My native mountains! much are ye
Revered. In your formation grand,
Your varied scapes, and gushing streams,
I see the hand of the Almighty.
Yon glassy lake, whose bosom bears
The lightsome bark, was *His* design;
He gave it form—*He* gave it bounds.
We reverence his power—his name—
And while with filial love, we view
These scenes with countless blessings fraught,
O! let us humbly give *the praise*,
Where *all* is due.

ADA.

For the Green Mountain Repository.

PANDORA'S BOX.

To trace the beauties of the opening spring,
And paint the vernal hues—the rosy tints—
To keep the fancy ever on the wing,
By natures imagery—by artful hints
To wake the passions of a sluggish mind,—
To bury care in dark oblivion's grave—
To soothe the anguish years have left behind,
And present hours from melancholy save,
The poet often mends his long worn quill,
Or tasks his brain to check some grosser ill.

But I will take less thought of threadbare things,
And turn to what—common though it be—
Like the young poet's vain imaginings
Should far hence to other regions flee,
Though never more return on earth to dwell.
Reader, you may, perhaps, strive to divine
This pest, by fancying some gloomy dell,
Or dark and fearful cavern, where combine
Hosts of dark sprights in breeding plagues by day,
To strew in night's deep gloom along each way.

But seek no farther than the tortured mind,
Of some inquisitive and jealous maid,
For there you may more evil spirits find,
Than in dark caverns by thy fancy's aid
The *prompting spirit* ever thirsts to know.
The inmost secrets of a neighbor's heart;
And when obtain'd, they never fail to grow
In form and mien, by her twin sister's art,
Whose name is *Tattler*—who goes hand in hand
With Miss *Inquisitive*, in every land.

Envy—the mother of this busy pair,
Has trained her daughters in the wily art
Of basely scandalizing all who are
More fair, more chaste, more virtuous in heart.
And her duenna—Madam *Jealousy*—
Whose Argus eyes behold what never was—
Gives to Miss Tattler, scope and liberty,
To make her observations known. The cause—
Indeed, the place where half our mischief's bred,
Is that Pandora's box—an *old maid's* head.

VERSIFIER.